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SLATE AND BLACK BOARD EXERCISES.—(CONTINUED.)

Once more. "Seven times seven make forty-nine," thousands and millions of voices have vociferated, in our schools, when they had no more idea of the relative proportion of the several sevens to each other than if they had never uttered an articulate sound. All, *all* is mere memory work; parrot work. I do not say I would have none of it; for that is quite another question. But this I do affirm, that such memory work is not knowledge; *real, practical knowledge*. Till a pupil learns, in one way, or another, by the intervention of sensible objects of some sort, or their representatives, (as dots or squares, or circles, on the black board or slate,) the true relation which seven ones, and seven sevens have to each other, he is no arithmetician. His mental arithmetic, as it is called, has no permanent basis, but is built on sand.

How easy it is to establish this relation of numbers, by means of seven rows of seven dots each? Or, if we choose, squares or circles may be used instead of dots. For various reasons, however, I prefer the dots, or if not dots, the representations of various little objects, as beans, corns, pins, small pieces of money, and the like.

Here is a specimen, on a small scale, of what may be done by the black board, on a larger one.

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o o o o o o o
o o o o o o o
o o o o o o o
o o o o o o o
o o o o o o o
o o o o o o o
o o o o o o o

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What has been said, in this chapter, and in the chapter on map making, opens to the inquisitive and intelligent teacher, and to the pupils also, who are hungering and thirsting after knowledge, a wide field for slate and black board exercises. How little have we thought of the vast amount of preliminary instruction which it is so needful to give; and how little of the value of those instruments by which it can so readily be given!

But we will take for granted that the pre-

liminary knowledge to which I allude has been given, and that the pupils have been taught how to form the nine digits with the cypher. They know nothing, as yet of any combinations of the digits or figures, nor of their properties, individual or collective. Preparatory to the study of written arithmetic, here, too, is a considerable work for the slate and black board.

One of the first exercises of this sort is to learn to write the figures in perpendicular rows. Thus:

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1      8
2      5
3      4
4      2
5      6
6      1
7      3
8      9
9      0
0      7

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It requires both skill and practice to place figures in perpendicular rows. It is not so difficult to write them in rows horizontally, as below.

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1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0
9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

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Some think it best to draw lines on the slate and black board, both perpendiculars and horizontals, letting the lines cross each other to form squares; a figure being then written to each square. But I do not think this advisable. If a scholar begins to be dependent on ruled lines, he will be apt to continue dependent. I would, therefore, at once place my dependence on the eye, and on long practice.

Here, in this matter, of writing figures, pupils will learn chiefly from imitation. The copy of the teacher on the black board will be worth every thing to them. As fast as the teacher puts down a figure, let it be imitated; and when a row is copied or a sufficient number of rows for a lesson, let the whole be corrected by the teacher or a monitor; or, what is perhaps still better, by the pupil himself, standing at or before the black board.

Perhaps large lessons, (or at least deep perpendicular rows,) will be as useful as any other in teaching pupils how to write figures with method and order; something like the following.

2 5 7 8 1 6 1 6 4
 3 4 5 7 3 8 9 0 9
 1 7 3 2 4 3 3 5 6
 2 2 1 6 0 7 1 7 7
 4 0 1 3 6 3 3 3 5
 7 2 9 4 6 1 5 8 6
 1 9 0 3 2 4 8 4 8
 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
 1 2 3 4 4 6 7 8 9
 3 2 1 6 4 2 9 8 7
 1 5 2 6 3 8 4 0 0

8 5 4 3 2
 1 6 5 9 0
 8 3 9 1 7
 7 2 3 0 0
 9 6 7 8 7
 0 6 4 0 9
 8 3 4 6 9
 7 6 5 4 3
 2 1 9 8 0
 5 3 8 6 7
 4 3 6 5 0

Another good exercise is to accustom them to follow the lines correctly, where the numbers, or sums are not of uniform value. The following is a specimen of a lesson of this sort.

9 8 7 6 5 4 3 7 1
 6 9 1 8 4 3 0
 3 7 4 3 6 7 6
 4 0 6 8 0 2 1 4
 3 0 6 8 6
 2 9 4 2

Here is an example, in which the sums or numbers are still more irregular.

1 8 6 9 5 0 0 0
 2 6 1 9
 8 1 3 6 4 3 8
 3 6 3 6 0
 4 4
 7 8 0 9 3 8
 6 7 9 3 8 4 2 4 5

It is well known to be much more difficult to keep perpendicular or vertical rows distinct, where the horizontal ones are of different lengths; and yet it is highly desirable to acquire the habit of being able to do so. This, as I have already said, is the appropriate work of the black board and the slates, and should be persevered in, till a pretty good share of skill is acquired, in the exercise.

Every teacher who has had any acquaintance at all with the black board, knows how useful it is in teaching numeration, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; indeed all the various rules and processes which belong to arithmetic. It is hardly necessary that I should dwell, therefore, on these. I will only say, once for all, proceed slowly, and do not suffer the anxiety of the pupils to get forward from one rule to another, or from the black board to the book, or that of their parents on their behalf, urge you on a step faster than the good of the pupils obviously demands. I know how difficult it is not to hurry on; and this makes me the more anxious to prevent it. Make haste, indeed, every where, and in all things; or at least, waste no time.

And yet there is much of meaning and of good sense, too, in the saying or maxim, which I have so often quoted; "Make haste slowly."

If tables are to be committed to memory, such as the multiplication table, tables of weight and measure, tables of time, &c. it is well to make this, too, a slate and black board exercise. Not, indeed, that I would ever write the whole multiplication table on the black board, or indeed the whole of any other table at once; but only such parts as were suitable for a single lesson. But when written, in this way, I would make great efforts to have the whole portion, which is put down, at one time committed to memory. They may transfer it from the black board to their slates or not, as may seem best and most useful, in the circumstances.

It may excite a little surprise, perhaps, that I should put my thoughts on the use of tables, with the methods of teaching them, at the close of my chapter on Arithmetic, rather than at the beginning. Nevertheless I am quite confident that this is the proper place for it. Many a scholar is disgusted with arithmetic forever, by being compelled, at the outset, to commit to memory a host of unintelligible tables, rules, &c.

If addition tables, subtraction tables, multiplication tables, tables of weight, measure, time, currency, &c. &c. are to be committed to memory at all, let them be in small portions of each at a time, and let one table, or portion of a table, be thoroughly learned before proceeding to another. Thus, if we commence with the table of avoirdupois weight, let that occupy the black board, (especially if there be a smaller black board and a larger one,) till it is wholly committed to memory. If the multiplication table is the subject, let that be followed up till it is mastered. Only a part of this long table, however, should stand on the slate at one time, say a single division of it, as from 4-times 4 are 16 to 4 times 12 are 48.

Many teachers insist on having a pupil commit to memory the principles, &c. of each rule, before he is permitted to work in that rule; but the utility of this requisition is to say the least doubtful. I have thought it better—I still think so—so to order things, as to have the rule appear to be derived from the exercise under it, rather than the exercises from the rule. In this way, as growing out of the exercises, I think a rule simply expressed, and written down on the black board, and by each pupil on his slate, much more likely to be effectually impressed on the memory, than if it were merely committed to memory, without being written.

CHAPTER XI.—GEOGRAPHY.

The pupil having already become familiar with making geometrical figures and drawing simple maps, that is outlines of places with which he is familiarly acquainted, and having, above all, obtained correct ideas of distance, so as to have as it were a basis for his ideas to rest upon, is now ready to go forward with a more extended study of geography.

In pursuance of this branch, however, I would keep in view, as much as possible, the general principle already laid down and insisted on—that of beginning at home, in everything; or in other words, proceeding, always, from the known to the unknown. This principle is particularly applicable to the study of geography.

And yet, important a principle as it is, I cannot say I would never depart from it. On the contrary I am strongly inclined to think that we ought to depart from it, at times; that we should teach not only geography but some other branches, both ways, by *analysis* and by *synthesis*. Not at first, indeed, but after the pupil has made some progress.

Geography should be begun with map making; taking it up, perhaps, where it was left, in the exercises described in the chapter on that subject. It will be recollected that little was then proposed, however, except the merest *outlines* of the school room and grounds, the commons and roads near that, and perhaps the town in which they are situated. Nothing was said of marking out, on the county and state maps proposed, the rivers, mountains, and other natural objects which render a map so attractive as well as valuable; and the location of which, by the learner, is so useful an exercise.

In studying geography, as geography, however, it would be of the highest importance to insert, in all our maps, the rivers, mountains, lakes, seas, &c. The position of cities, towns, &c. should also be indicated in some way. In general it is preferable to write the names of places, near the little circle or square which is made to point out its exact location.

In commencing the study of geography regularly, the teacher should always begin with the black board; and with the town in which his school is located. He should designate not only its shape, but its principal roads, with its village or villages; its rivers and brooks, (those at least of any size;) its mountains and hills; its lakes, seas, and bays; and even its principal churches, factories, &c. To this end, it is true, the teacher must have books and maps, unless,

indeed, he is a complete encyclopedia of topographical knowledge; but what then? No man can be a professional man, not even a mechanic—I mean a skilful and profitable one—without the implements of his occupation or profession.

Suppose a teacher and his pupils in Hartford, about to draw an outline of the town.* Shall it be drawn according to the size of which it appears on our larger maps of the state? Or shall it be somewhat larger? To draw it as large as it is represented, on some of the maps of the city and town, would be, obviously, quite inconvenient, because though there might be room enough for it on the black board, there would not be on the slates. Besides, it should not occupy all the space even of one side of a slate. There should be room enough for a part or all of the contiguous towns, in order to show its relations and boundaries. Perhaps it is best for a teacher to draw it as large as can be copied on the smallest slates, with such room for boundaries as would be necessary.

The map of Hartford might be drawn on the black board about three inches long, from north to south, and of proportional width; viz, from an inch and a half to two inches. Hartford is almost a parallelogram or long square; though its eastern boundary is somewhat irregular, being formed by the river.

The Connecticut river is a line so distinct and prominent that portions of the towns east of it would hardly be necessary, or if necessary at all, only very small portions of them. A very narrow strip of East Hartford and East Windsor would include the central villages and churches. But in order to make its relation to Farmington and Avon on the west as prominent as it ought to be, it would be well to have the mere outlines, (in fainter strokes,) of both these places drawn, and also the southern portion of Bloomfield and Windsor. I would include about half of Wethersfield, (the more important part,) and a corner of Britain society in Berlin. Farther than this, unless the slates were all of sufficient length to admit it with freedom, I would not go; except it were to the eastward beyond the river.

Much importance should be attached to the correctness of each of the town lines. Thus beginning with the line between Hartford and Farmington and Avon—which is nearly straight, and runs almost due north and south, and might for simplicity's sake

* I have selected Hartford as a point from which to begin, both because I am more familiar with the place than most others; and also because its boundaries and those of the adjacent towns are particularly easy to describe.

be represented exactly so—I would draw this just three inches long; and every pupil should be required to do the same. This line I would make the nucleus, as it were, of the map; on which, or around which, I would attach or connect the rest.

It is important to begin, always, with the simplest line, provided it is of sufficient length to form a proper starting point. The importance too, of having each pupil trained to the art of drawing perpendicular, horizontal and other lines, as well as of judging in regard to measures of length—inches and feet especially—cannot but be obvious.

From the bottom of this north and south line—the western boundary of Hartford—strike off one at right angles, that is horizontally, to the river, of just two inches. That at the north should be made next, but is more difficult. A line should be carried from the top of the long line or western boundary, horizontally, or eastward, nearly one inch; then it should be turned exactly south, a very little distance, perhaps about the twelfth of an inch, after which it should be again carried horizontally, or eastward, a little more than two thirds of an inch. The eastern line or river alone remains to be made; and will be the most difficult of all.

If, however, a teacher has studied his subject well before hand, is skilful at drawing, and has a correct eye as to distance, he will not be long in leading his pupils to the formation of very good outlines of the town of Hartford. Many corrections will no doubt be necessary in the progress of the exercise, especially in the construction of the river line; but time and patience will enable him and his pupils to make them;—perfect accuracy, of course, not being expected.

The additional lines—intended to represent the boundaries, either partially or wholly, of the adjoining towns—will be very easily added to the former; especially as they are, in general, extensions of them, or mere offsets from them. They should be added as soon as the foregoing outline is completed; but need not be made with so much accuracy. One, for example, should be carried due north from the northwest corner of Hartford—say two thirds of an inch; from which a line carried westward, two inches, will form the north line of Avon, and another parallel to it and about an inch and a quarter south of it will form the southern line of the same township. The line running westward and south westward between Farmington and Britain cannot be so well described here, but is pretty easily made.

A correct idea of the points of the com-

pass, is also, as will be seen, highly indispensable; but may be soon and easily acquired, in connection with such maps. There are, I know, a great many of our pupils—some, I fear, who can hardly be called young ones—who know as little, (as Joseph Emerson has well said,) what we mean when we tell them that the top of a map is north, and the bottom south, as they would if we should tell them the top is *oro* and the bottom *cluro*. But here they see that Bloomfield and Windsor are at the top of the map, and they know that these places are north of Hartford—at least most of our pupils do. The river Connecticut, they find winding along the eastern side of the map, and they know that this is in accordance with their own daily observation. Wethersfield and the State Prison they know to be south; and here, on the bottom of the map, they find them. So Farmington they know to be west; and in the west they accordingly find it.

Now, I do not say, that there are not other ways—some of them more expeditious even—in which to get a correct idea of north and south on the map; but I do say that this seems to me to be the true way, and almost the only true way.

But the map is not completed when the boundary lines are drawn, and even when the pupil becomes familiar with the relative position of the adjacent places, and their boundaries, according to the points of the compass. The small river sometimes called Little River, which comes in from the west, is to be drawn; the city is to be located, and West Hartford; and several objects are to be marked in the city itself, as the College, the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, the Retreat for the Insane, the Orphan Asylum, the State House, &c. It might be well, moreover, to mark the situation of the mountains, in the borders of Avon and Farmington, on which are to be seen Wadsworth tower.

It is indeed true that not every town and its vicinity, are so favorably situated for the purpose we are now considering as Hartford. And yet some may be more so. There are, in truth, very few that have not within them, a number of natural or artificial objects sufficiently great to arrest and detain for a short time the attention of a class of pupils. There are few of our towns, which have in them no rivers, brooks, ponds, mountains, hills, or caves; perhaps none which are without church, factory, literary, or benevolent institution, court house, or jail.

We are not, however, to study the geography of our own native town, and the towns

adjacent, for the sake of a knowledge of those towns, in itself considered, so much as for the sake of *making a beginning*, by doing that which is equivalent to what is called, by mechanics, getting the use of tools. The pupil needs to understand the use of a map; how it is made, and how to make it. The longer, therefore, he can be detained in this first lesson, without losing his interest in the exercise, the better; because he will thereby become, as he should be thoroughly acquainted with the terms of geography, and of map making as connected with geography.

Every map, at first, should be as mere an outline as possible. The fewer the lines and marks, the more distinct, and permanent will be the impression on the pupils' minds. I would not, therefore, be in haste to fill up even the map of one's own native town. A few only of the more striking features should be inserted. Other things may be talked about; and the pupils may even be told where they should be placed on the map, were they to be put down. But farther than this, at first, it will not be well to go.

Another exercise is necessary, in order to fit the pupil to go forward with his studies with intelligence. He must be taught to make a map of his native town, on a reduced scale. Take the case which has just been considered. Draw the outlines of Hartford on a smaller scale than before. Let the first line formed—the western boundary—be but one inch, instead of three; and let the rest be in proportion.

This will prepare the way for making a map of the whole of Hartford county. For on this reduced scale, any slate in school would hold all the towns in the county, without the least possible difficulty. At the same time we should accustom the pupil to a dissected map of the same county. He can hardly be made too familiar with the geography of his own town and county, or with the shape and position relatively of the States and Territories of our Union. He should also be made familiar with the general shape of the United States and its Territories, taken as a whole, and the general position of the same with relation to the countries around. For this purpose he must be able to put together a dissected map of North America; to which, subsequently, we should add South America.

How far it is best to proceed in this way—this going from the known to the unknown—I am not certain. A time will arrive, however, when the question of the shape of the earth will naturally come in. This may

be when the teacher is conversing with his pupils about Connecticut river. They may ask, Where does the water in Connecticut river come from? or, Where does it go? and, If the rivers are constantly running into the ocean, why does not the ocean get full?

Or the question of the earth's rotundity may not come up till some knowledge is acquired of the shape and relative position of the continents and oceans, and the teacher begins to converse with them about going from place to place; as from America to Asia, to the South Sea Islands, or to China. Some ingenious pupil may be struck with surprise to find that we can get to China both by going eastward and westward, and may ask an explanation. If so this will be the proper time to inform the class that the earth is round; and to make, by means of the black board, every possible explanation. I say every possible one; because it will not be possible to make the subject very intelligible without a globe of some sort, if it is simply an apple.

And yet when the knowledge has once been imparted and received that the earth is round, a great deal may be done by means of slates and black boards to make the matter more intelligible and *practical* than otherwise it would be. For very few pupils who have long been familiar with maps and globes, and who are able to tell us, parrot like, that China is on the opposite side of the globe from that on which they stand, and Cape Horn, a quarter of the way round the globe, have any distinct idea of the real rotundity of the earth, after all.

For proof of this, let one of these unfledged geographers be asked to tell which way a cannon should be pointed in order to shoot a ball, if the thing were possible, to China, would he not say, at once, that it ought to be pointed eastward? And when asked to point his own finger in the same direction, would he not hold it horizontally with respect to the earth's surface? Would he not do the same with respect to Cape Horn? And yet, if the earth is round, this could not be right. To point the finger or a piece of cannon toward China—that is really and truly to do so—it must be placed perpendicularly with respect to the surface of the earth, and not horizontally; and to point to Cape Horn, it must be placed at an angle of about 45 degrees with the earth's surface.

Now all this, and a thousand other kindred facts, tending to show that the earth is practically round, as well as theoretically so, might be made intelligible on the black board; where a globe was not at hand.

More than even this; I am not sure that the black board is not better for this purpose than a globe possibly can be.

Let it be required of the pupil to tell, as above, in what course China really lies from New England. To make the matter plain to him, the teacher may draw a circle on the black board, representing, that is designed to represent, a section, or slice, of the earth from west to east, or a section of the artificial globe, in the same direction. Then by showing him, that here, on the upper part of the circle, is New England; and there on the lower part is China, and drawing a line from the former to the latter, we may make the thing intelligible to him. Here, the teacher says, a cannon ball shot off from New England to China, must go in the precise course in which I am drawing this line.

Again, let it be required to find out the course of Cape Horn from New England. To this end we make a circle on the black board representing a section or slice of the earth through from north to south, and say here is New England and there is Cape Horn; and now you see that if I draw a straight line, with the piece of chalk, from New England to Cape Horn, it passes in an oblique direction, or 45 degrees below the horizon.

But to return to our work of map making, and map dissecting. Nothing, as it seems to me, is so useful in studying geography, as the simultaneous use of the slate and black board, and dissected maps. I seriously doubt whether it is of any real advantage to put books into the hands of a child who is studying geography, till he has been drilled at least two or three years with slate, black board, and a globe. Maps he needs—good maps—no matter how many; but not books.

Granted that in order to have the school derive the full benefit of this plan of instruction in geography, the teacher must be master of the science. He must be able to draw, at a moments warning, the outlines of any country in the world; and not only to draw the outlines, but to fill it up. Not that a teacher ought himself to do either of these very often, at least without any aid from the pupils. He should be continually referring every thing to their memory, judgment, &c.

To recur, once more, to the map of Hartford, on the smallest or last mentioned scale. This being drawn, the teacher says; I wish now to add Wethersfield; on which side of Hartford shall I place it? If they say, on the south side, he asks them which the south side is. Here, he says, is Hartford, on

the black board; you see its boundaries; shall I place Wethersfield at top or bottom, or at one side? Or, if at one side, on which side? A large map of the whole state, with every township distinctly marked off by lines, will of course be in pursuance of this plan, quite a necessary article.

Having drawn the boundaries of Wethersfield, all except perhaps the eastern, he asks, Is this right? What is wanting in order to have it right? Which boundary is wanting? What forms this boundary? In what direction does the river run? From what town or towns does the river separate it? What other towns do you know of, which are bounded on their eastern side, by Connecticut river, besides Hartford and Wethersfield? What towns do you know of that are bounded on their western side by the same river?

Here is one of the boundaries of Wethersfield; from what place or places does it separate it? From what places does this boundary separate it? Is there any river in Wethersfield? Are there any lakes in it? Any mountains? Any seas, gulfs, or bays? Let me now hear you mention its boundaries, in course.

No teacher would be well prepared for these exercises, in Hartford who was not able, with the aid of a large map of Connecticut, to draw the outlines of any township in Hartford county, or indeed any one adjoining the river, below it. He should be so familiar with drawing, moreover, as to be able to draw the outlines of these places with as much rapidity as he would make the figures used in arithmetic, or the capital letters used in writing.*

So of the States of the Union. To be able to teach well, a teacher should be so familiar with the shape of every state, as to be able with a good map of the United States before him, to draw the outlines of any given state, in a moment; and to draw it, too, with accuracy; I mean as to its size, proportions, &c.

Suppose he is to draw the outlines of the State of Connecticut. Now he should have so clear an idea of the shape of the state, in his mind, as not to need any aid at all. Yet in order to be accurate, it is well, always for him to have a good map before him, at least of the United States, and occasionally to cast his eye over it. We can never be too accurate or too perfect in these things, when we consider how permanent the impression is which they are to make on the minds of our pupils.

* The ingenious teacher cannot fail to be able to apply what is said here, to his own town, county, &c. and to the towns and counties adjacent.

With this skill, he can never fail to find employment for his pupils—useful employment, too. With the map of the State of Connecticut before him, he draws the outline of one of its counties, and says; 'This represents the shape of one of the counties in Connecticut, can you tell me which it is? What county lies next to it on the west? What on the east? What on the north? What on the south?'

So in regard to the map of the United States. He draws the boundaries of one of the States, and asks what state it is; what others join it; and in what direction they are. He inquires, also, the position of one state with respect to another. Thus he asks, which way is the state which I have drawn from that in which you live? Suppose it to be Maryland. He asks which way Maryland is from Ohio—from Vermont—from South Carolina—from Missouri—from Michigan—from Maine—from Louisiana, &c.

So, in fact, in regard to any other map—the map of the world not excepted. He draws the outlines of Africa, and asks about its boundaries, its bearing from us—from Europe—from Asia—from New Holland—from the South Sea Islands, &c. Or he draws an ocean, a sea, or a lake, and asks what ocean, sea, or lake it is, how it is bounded, what of the same class are smaller, or larger, &c.

We hence see that it is not in the mere drawing of the outlines of countries that a teacher can profitably use a black board. He may draw rivers as well as countries. Let him draw the Missouri, the St. Lawrence, the Oregon, the Oronoke, the Amazon, the Nile, the Irawaddy, the Seine, or the Rhine. Let him draw them, moreover, in their natural position, and of a proper length and size and relation to one another. Thus the Nile, and the Oronoke, he should represent as having a northern course, the Amazon and St. Lawrence an eastern; the Oregon a western, &c. Let him, then, for another exercise, ask what countries lie on, that is, near these respective rivers? What mountains give rise to them? What cities stand on their banks?

So interesting—so exceedingly absorbing and interesting—are these exercises, in the hands of a judicious teacher, who has a large black board at his command, that I doubt whether a better method could be adopted—at least in a great many instances—to silence a boisterous school, or to turn the current of roguery, in a particular corner of it, than that of making some river, as the Nile, and after describing it, asking questions on it, by way of review.

I have hitherto mentioned but a very few things to be attended to in the course of these introductory exercises, because I have believed, and still believe that the most accurate and distinct notions, on this subject, are always obtained by studying, carefully, at first, a few outlines of each country—not excepting our own. The boundaries and larger divisions, with the rivers, mountains, lakes, seas, and perhaps a few more of the more striking natural features of a country, with a little attention to the cities, is perhaps, really all which is useful, at the first.

But when considerable time has elapsed, and these topics become generally familiar, there are a variety of other exercises which should come in. One of the most striking, not to say the most useful, is the following.

The teacher draws the boundary of a country—say France—and having done this puts down his crayon on the northern part of it, and asks, "Were we transported, in an instant, to this spot, what should we probably see? Should we see fields and roads fenced out as they are here? What sort of houses? What colored people? How would they be dressed? How do they travel? What should we see them doing, besides cultivating the soil? What crops should we see? What fruit trees or fruits? What domestic animals? What wild animals? What forest trees?"

Aghin, just where I place my staff, in the country whose outline I have now drawn, (which we will suppose is North America,) is a great lake; do you know what it is? With what other lakes does it connect? Into what river do they pour their contents? Into what sea or ocean does the river empty itself? What other large lakes are there in the world besides this and its neighbors? Which way from us is this lake? Which way is it from Europe—from Asia—from Africa—from South America?

But I am afraid I have made suggestions in regard to so many exercises that the main thing, after all, will be forgotten. This is map making—continued, I had almost said, incessant map making. Every thing in regard to the study of geography, intelligently, depends upon this. But in order to this, we must begin right. He who can make a map of his own town, and county, and an outline of his native state with correctness, can make at least the outlines of almost any other part of the world.

The pupils of our common schools ought to be able to make a map of any part of the world—state, country, island, sea, ocean, or continent—with as much facility and correctness as a skilful teacher of music will make write notes, or a rapid mathematician

make figures. Nor is there the least difficulty of acquiring such skill, with time and patience, and suitable instruction.

Nor is there, as I believe, any want of time for all this. Immense almost is the time wasted by many, nay most of our pupils, in the progress of their course of common school instruction. Had we but some philosophers stone to transmute all into gold, how great would be the advantage! The discovery of such a power of transmutation, rather of something equivalent to it, I do not profess to have made; nevertheless I do profess to have suggested thoughts and plans, which whether of my own invention or borrowed, are worth a thousand times more than any philosopher's stone could be.

CHAPTER XII.—HISTORY.

The study of History, like that of Geography, and many other branches, should begin at home, with the known. This, I mean, is the way to begin with those who are wholly ignorant of the subject, and consequently more or less destitute of interest in regard to it. No matter whether they are old or young—eight years old or eighteen—they should commence their studies a like, both as respects time and place.

Admitting this, history should most obviously follow geography. The latter science, pursued in the spirit of the forgoing chapter, is exactly the sort of preparation, needed for its pursuit. It lays open to the pupil the great theatre of human action, as it is; and even introduces him to the present actors. But who have been the other actors, in by gone periods? And what have been their actions?—To obtain a satisfactory reply to these queries is to study history.

To begin this, in common schools, we should commence as with most other things which are taught there, with the black board. Let the teacher draw on it the map of the nearest place to the school house, which includes the scene of some interesting event of American History. If there is any such in his own town, so much the better. Thus a teacher in Hartford, after drawing the outlines or boundaries of the town might mark the spot where the Charter Oak stands. Or one in Charlestown, near Boston, might mark the spot where Bunker Hill stands, or one in Plymouth, the place of the Plymouth rock.

But it will be objected, I suppose, that few places are so distinguished as these. No, they are not. And yet there are but few places, where we cannot find some-

thing which will naturally lead us back to the history of that place. In a place where I was teaching school, in one instance—in truth not a mile from the school house—was a spot called French hill, from the fact that the French army of La Fayette once encamped there. This afforded a fine text for beginning upon the history of America. But if nothing of this kind should exist in the town where the school was, let a map of the county be drawn. If this, by possibility should include nothing striking, the boundaries of the state might be drawn, which would certainly answer the purpose.

But suppose the worst. Suppose this little manual should find its way to some state or territory in which no event has ever occurred, so striking as to attract attention, and be made the ready key or nucleus of other events. Such a supposition which is indeed almost an impossibility, but we will venture to make it. Still, however, which of us has not had an aged friend or acquaintance who was engaged more or less either in the war of the revolution or in that of 1812?

In the latter case we might begin by drawing a map or the boundaries of a map which would include some place or places which our friend visited. Thus suppose one of my friends or townsman was in the Indian battle of Tippecanoe, where the late President Harrison won his laurels, as it is so often expressed. Let me then draw a map of the river Wabash and its principal branches, with perhaps the boundaries of the state of Indiana; and begin our oral and black board studies of history from that point. Or to come nearer home, suppose I have had relatives or friends—some of whom are still living—who witnessed the execution of Major Andre, a British officer of the revolutionary war, at Tappan, near Hudson's river, in the state of New York. In that case, draw a map of Hudson's river, and an outline of the country above New York, between that city and Poughkeepsie, and having marked the spots where Andre was taken and executed, proceed to tell the pupils about him; who he was; what it was for which he was executed; by whose orders he was executed; the names of some of the other American officers, &c. This would lead, perhaps, to conversation about them, especially Washington. And to converse freely and fully about Washington, from his birth to his death, is to go over, in a cursory manner, nearly the whole of our American history, for the last century.

There is no sort of difficulty in finding a path, if we desire it, which will lead our pupils back to the history of one of our wars

—that of 1812, or that of 1776. And when we once get them interested, in this way, the story of one event will lead us to speak of another event, or of another individual who was concerned with that event; that to something else; and thus on, to the history of our country from the first; and then to that of other countries.

In all this, however, we have continual need of the black board. Let us suppose the case of Andre, as before mentioned, and some of the conversation which might arise from it.

Having drawn our map of the river Hudson, and marked the spot where now stand New York, Peekskill, Esopus, West Point, Newburg, and Poughkeepsie, we next mark a spot for Tappan. Here, we say, using our position, Andre was executed. But he was not taken here; he was taken over there, the east side of the river; marking that spot also. Then, again, in speaking of his object, we should have occasion to say something of West Point as it now is; its military school, the object of such a school, &c.

Conversation on this subject, moreover, might and would lead to say something of Washington. Who was Washington?—When and where was he born? When and where did he die? At the same time, we should find it useful to draw an outline of Virginia, and mark the place of Washington's birth, as well as that of Mount Vernon, the place of his residence and death.

And in proceeding with his history, which is never tiresome to the young, how often would it be useful to seize the crayon or the chalk, and sketch an outline map of one place, or river, or another? And more than this even—at least if we are as familiar with drawing as I shall show hereafter that we ought to be—how frequently, as we pass along, will it be both interesting and profitable to sketch some object, natural or artificial, the description of which is needed for explanation or illustration?

Are the pupils, however, to be passive in all this? Certainly not. We cannot make them so, if we would. One will try to draw some place on his slate, which has been drawn on the black board in the progress of the conversation; another will, perhaps, wish to ask some question about the construction of a gallows, or a fort; another will write down or revolve, in his mind, more or less concerning the events. We should always let as many of the sketches, maps, &c. which have been drawn at any particular lesson remain for some time upon the black board as we possibly can; and here is an important reason for having at

least one very large board in the school room for general purposes.

But this repeating something which has been drawn, upon the slate, is not all which our pupils may be expected to do. They may be required to write down on their slates, the historical facts which they may have heard repeated; and this, too, as far as they may be able, in the order, as regards time, in which they took place.

For example, suppose we had told them at one time about La Fayette, and the French army, which he was the means of bring over to this country, and what battles they were chiefly concerned in; as well as how it happened that La Fayette and his country were moved to come on and help us. Suppose that at another time we had told them about the battle at Bunker Hill, who were engaged in it, how it originated, in what it terminated, &c. Suppose, once more, we had told them the story of Major Andre's execution, and General Arnold's treachery. Now would it not be a useful exercise to require them to relate these events, on their slates—briefly of course—in the order in which they occurred?

This exercise would be of service in many more points of view than one. For there might be pupils whose mental organization or whose habits were such as might lead them to much inaccuracy about the order of events, especially when history was taught them in the manner here recommended. In writing down what they had heard of the revolution, it might, by possibility, read thus; precisely in the order in which the lessons had been given out by the teacher.

"The American people grew tired of sustaining the war alone; they wanted men and money. The French government accordingly sent over General La Fayette, with men, and money, and ships to our aid. The money and ships and men were all of great service to us; the men fought for us, on several occasions and were subjected, on our account, to many trials, hardships and losses.

"At Boston, the British had almost overrun the country, as well as the city; but the Americans, having determined to take a stand on Bunker Hill, in Charlestown, began to fortify it. The British undertook to drive them away, when a great battle ensued, in which, though the British were defeated, the American general, Dr. Warren was killed. On the spot where he fell, a monument is now being erected, called Bunker Hill monument.

"General Arnold, who commanded the American army at West Point, discouraged

perhaps with the war, and dissatisfied with General Washington and the government, undertook, in a wicked manner, to give up the army and West Point to the British troops at New York. To help along the project, Major Andre, a British officer came out from New York into the neighborhood of West Point in disguise, but was taken up and condemned as a spy and executed. He was taken at Tarrytown, on the Eastern side of Hudson's river and hung at Tappan, on the Western side, about 30 miles above New York City."

Now such an arrangement of facts, erroneous as it is, would be perfectly natural, at least to the thoughtless and giddy. For we must never forget that the young are never destitute of curiosity, and therefore love to hear stories and grow in knowledge. They are volatile, and sometimes impatient. They are not always willing to take pains about the order of events, or their remoter effects or causes. A great deal of patience is often needed, to enable us to begin with them, and as circumstances may require it, to set them right.

In the above instance the correction is not difficult. It is easy to show that the war of the revolution began in and about Boston, and that the contest at Bunker Hill, was an event of early date. That Arnold's treachery, was next to this, in the order of time, and the arrival of La Fayette, in this country last of the three. In general, unless a pupil is peculiarly sensitive, these corrections, with the explanations which would naturally accompany them, may be made before the whole school, and will be found as interesting to many others, as to the individual for whose special benefit they were intended.

This branch may be pursued farther or not so far, as may seem to the teacher most expedient, in his particular circumstances. There is, however, one method of pursuing it, upon which I wish to dwell somewhat longer.

To those who have gone a little way in this branch, either on the black board or elsewhere, and who are familiar with Geography, exercises like the following, may be highly useful. True they are most valuable as a review, after we have studied books—but we have abundant proof that these slate and black board exercises do not exclude books, but lead to their profitable study.

The teacher will draw an outline map of France, and after inserting the river Seine, and perhaps a very few other natural features of this great empire, will put down his crayon on Paris, and say; Do you know

what city of France stands here on the river Seine? If they say, Paris; he asks; What does history say of Paris? What great events have occurred here, and at what periods? &c. The questions may be written, if the teacher prefers it, on the black board, and be suffered to remain there in full view of the school, who as fast as they are able prepare their replies to the several questions. In other cases, immediate verbal replies only may be required.

CHAPTER XIII.—BIOGRAPHY.

The importance of Biography, as a branch of English education, seems to me undeniable. The only debate or question connected with it, is how amid a multiplicity of other things, confessedly indispensable, we can by possibility find time for it. For if taught at all, it should be taught in the common school.

Biography, however, is a branch which can be pursued, to a greater or less extent, according to circumstances. It is not with it, as with History or Grammar, especially the latter, that unless *studied through*, as a system, we derive from it but little benefit. Its successive portions, are, in a great measure complete, by themselves. Thus, we may study the life of Paul or Howard or Washington, and then stop forever; and yet we do not necessarily lose what we have learned. We are still acquainted, more or less, with the distinguished individual whose life we have studied, and though an acquaintance for example with La Fayette, Franklin, Lee, Greene, Knox, Adams, Hancock, and many other of his cotemporaries would make us much more intimately acquainted with Washington himself, than we should otherwise be, we still feel, I say again, that we have accomplished something. And we feel right. Hence if we cannot do every thing in common schools in the way of studying biography which we wish, every teacher may make a beginning, as well as not. There are always moments for this purpose, will we but use them. But this I shall show more clearly in the chapter on morality.

In teaching biography, on the black board, I would always begin with valuable characters; such for example as Paul and Howard. I have mentioned the names of warriors in connection with *history*; not because warriors are often good men, but because it is much easier to teach history in connection with their names than with those of any other class of citizens.

Let us take the biography of Howard. The teacher sketches the boundaries of the

great empire of European Russia. 'Here,' he says, "in the northern part, is St. Petersburg; quite a large city; here in the southern part is the city of Cherson. Do any of you know what distinguished man died here? It was John Howard. What do you know of John Howard? Was he an American, a Frenchman, a Russian or Englishman? What was he at Cherson for? Where was he going, when he went from Moscow to Cherson and died there?"

I do not mean to intimate that many pupils in a common school, would be likely to answer such questions as these; for it could not be expected. Some few however who had read the life of Howard, might be able to do so. At any rate I have indicated the course which conversation on the subject might naturally take; and which indeed it ought to take.

It might be too much to go through with his life, at a single lesson, but we may make a beginning. We may speak of some of the places which he visited on errands of mercy, and sketch them in passing, on the black board. At the next lesson, the pupils may be questioned by way of review, on the former lesson, and also made somewhat more familiarly acquainted with his character.

Great care I admit, is indispensable, on the part of teachers who would teach biography history or geography in this way, by topics. For not to put together our topics, afterward, is sometimes to confuse if not confound our pupils. Still, with pains and ingenuity, there is, I think, no insurmountable difficulty.

We may begin at the close of a man's life, as in this case of Howard, and then go back to his birth, and go through with it regularly; or we may begin with some interesting fact respecting him, and go backward and forward both. The only real difficulty is in making the pupil understand *where we are* and *what we are about*, at all times. So in teaching history; we may begin the history of the United States with Washington and the revolution, and run backward and forward, till we have completed it.

One more example of biography; that of Paul. I have spoken of his shipwreck, under another head, and for another purpose. Nevertheless, taking advantage of that as introduction, or of some other fact with which it is supposed a part of the pupils may be already familiar, I would commence his life at the same place, and go backward and forward, according to convenience till I had completed it.

The teacher might make a hasty map of

the Mediterranean sea, having made it distinctly understood by the class what sea it was, proceed as follows.

"Here," putting down his crayon, near the island of Malta, "about 1800 years ago, a vessel being wrecked on the rocky coast of this island, the crew and passengers consisting in the whole of about 270 persons—one of them an old man of fourscore, and others of the probably gray headed—all got ashore in safety; even though the sea run high and the vessel came to pieces suddenly, and they had no boat. Was not such an escape remarkable?"

"Now among this 270 persons was one man, whom most of you already know something about, and who was one of the most distinguished men, in many respects, that the world ever saw. Do any of you know his name? And where he was going, in the vessel, when he was shipwrecked? And on what island he was cast? Do you know what befel him on the island? Do you know what become of him afterwards?"

These questions show what course the conversation would naturally take. The teacher would speak of Paul's going to Rome—why he went there; what befel him there, &c. Then he would go back to the cause of his being sent there, which would of course lead to a great many more particulars of his history. Something more might now be said of the voyage, the places they passed, &c. &c. This would lead, very naturally, to a word about Tarsus, the place of Paul's nativity; and this again to his early life, conversion, first preaching, &c. In this way, by beginning in the middle of his history and going both forward and backward, the course would be made interesting and intelligible, without being formal; and in the end, by reviewing, or questioning the pupils, might be made clear, correct, and orderly.

Not unlike this is the Bible method of teaching biography, and I have often thought this might be one reason why the biography of the Bible is so deeply engaging and so permanently interesting. Take the case of this very same Paul. The first we know of him, he is a grown man, and already a fiery persecutor of the young Christian church. After his conversion, his history continues a while, till ere long, we are carried back, incidentally, particularly in his public speeches, to an account of his birth and education.—Again we follow him in his travels both in Europe and Asia, over sea and over land, till we find him sent to Rome, where for aught we know to the contrary, after having long braved the dangers of sea and land, and many thus narrowly escaped death, &c.

became a martyr to the cause he had advocated.

Whatever, therefore, may be the merits or demerits of this method of teaching biography, of one thing we are sure, at any rate; that it is striking and interesting; and that by means of slates and black boards, many of the facts are not only made more tangible, as it were, but for this very reason, better and longer removed than in any other way.

CHAPTER XIV.—GRAMMAR.

Admitting English Grammar to be the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly, it might seem at first view, that if a child, by proper attention to spelling, defining, reading, writing and composing, could be brought to speak and write correctly, it would supersede the necessity of studying Grammar as a separate branch, and save many months, if not years of valuable time.

Now I have not the least doubt that a course of instruction, like the foregoing, especially in spelling, defining, reading and composing, followed up by such *book* instruction as the slate can only make preparation for, would render many pupils better grammarians than our youth are usually found to be. And yet I think that the direct study of Grammar *subsequently* to the course of instruction to which I have referred, but not *before* it, may have its uses. I think that if those who attend to it should not read and speak any better on account of it, they would, at least, read and speak more *intelligibly*, both to themselves and others.

It is on this belief, and not solely with reference to the public prejudice in favor of Grammar, that I am disposed to give special attention to it, as a distinct branch. I know it is generally esteemed by our pupils as an exceedingly *dry* and *irksome* study; but it need not be so. It may be made as interesting to the young of every age, as almost any thing else. The only thing required is to render it as intelligible, and I might say as *tangible* as other studies.

Now I claim that the slate and black boards give to the study of Grammar, as they do to several other common school studies, a good degree of what I have here called tangibility. They certainly have done in my own hands; and I doubt not they may in the hands of others.

What, then, is the course of instruction in English Grammar, which should be pursued in connection with the slate and black board?

We should begin by requiring our pupils to write down on their slates, the names of *substantial things*, or in other words nouns; but without telling them at first, for what purpose. One of the exercises under the head of "Spelling," in which words are arranged in classes or natural families, is a kind of preparation for this part of Grammar to which we are now directing our attention.

The pupils should be made to understand, —not merely told it,—that the words which they are writing down must all be such words as will either mean something when standing by themselves, or with *a*, *an* or *the* placed before them. And in order to teach them how to act according to this rule, we must frequently bring words to this test on the black board. Thus suppose a pupil writes down the word *sour* under the erroneous belief that it means something. The teacher may then write it on the black board, and then say, "now is there any such thing as a *sour*?" We may indeed say a *sour* apple or *sour* vinegar, and *sour* looks, but is there any such thing as a *sour*, without putting some other word with it? Think now, whether it has any sense without something put before or after it."

In this way, that is in bringing words to the test, on the black board, may a teacher soon show his pupils what he means.—There will be very little difficulty with what are called proper nouns, or with the far greater proportion of all others. Still there is a class which it will be more difficult to get along with; chiefly, however, because their meaning is not understood. I refer to such words as *ingeniousness*, *correspondence*, *susceptibility*, &c., expressive of qualities, and yet retaining the character of substantive words. But it is hardly reasonable to expect the pupil to understand this matter thoroughly at first.

We need not be in haste about telling him that he is now engaged in the study of Etymology, a part of English Grammar. It is in fact, of no consequence whether he knows, for some time to come that he is studying Grammar. Nor need he ever know, till he has been quite familiar with their nature, the names, noun and substantive, as applied to this class of words. The character of the thing should first become familiar to him, and afterwards we may give him its name.

Next to the noun, we should study the adjective; but not under the name of adjective; this for a time should be withheld. We should write some common noun on the black board, very conspicuously, and require our pupils to write, on their slates a list of such words, as when placed before

it would make sense with it. For example, the word horse might be placed before them thus ;

horse.

"The question now is," the teacher will say, "what words are you acquainted with which, when placed before horse, will make sense with it. Perhaps you will write *walk* ; but can we say a *walk horse* ? Or you may possibly write down John or Thomas ; but can we say a John horse, or a Thomas horse ? We may indeed say John's horse, but not John horse. But if you write the words red or white or black, these will make sense with horse ; for we can say a white horse, or a black horse, or a red horse. There is a very great number of words of this class, and if no one pupil should be able to think of but a few, yet among them all they would, at least with a very little prompting, be able to make out a much larger number. For the benefit of those teachers who have thought but little on this subject, I will here insert a list of such adjectives as will make sense—and good sense, too,—with the substantive word *horse*.

red	kind	homely	slow
white	gentle	agreeable	ungovernable
grey	ugly	disagreeable	unmanageable
black	cross	old	unruly
pied	obedient	young	wild
good	healthy	small	gay
bad	sickly	large	headstrong
vicious	handsome	swift	

It may not be amiss to remind the teacher of what perhaps may have already forced itself upon his mind, that in almost every one of these exercises in grammar, the pupil is making improvement in spelling, defining, composing and thinking. So that were the study of words, and the cultivation of thought, the improvement of judgment and the consequent growth and expansion of the mental powers, as a whole, the main, if not sole, object of this form of study, it would be worth our attention and would be beyond the possibility of debate, exceedingly valuable.

But to return to the adjective. Anything beyond the mere definition of the adjective, in its simplest form, should not, at first, be attempted, lest we confound and perplex, rather than enlighten, and improve. Every thing in regard to the comparison of this part of speech, and all doubtful words—words I mean which he on the confines between the adjective and the noun on the one hand, and the adjective and the adverb on the other should, as far as possible, be studiously avoided.

It will be time enough, in this case, as in the former, to give out the name **ADJECTIVE**, after we have taught the *thing*. Let this

remark suffice also for the other parts of speech as well as the noun and adjective.

Before proceeding to the study of another part of speech, however, it will be well to exercise the pupil in combining the adjective and noun, as well as in framing them both into sentences. For this purpose blank sentences, not unlike the following, may be prepared on the black board.

A	man.
The	house.
A	tree.
An	book.
	horses.

Snow is

Grass is

Life is

The sun is

The

line.

These blanks the pupils should be required to fill out. The exercise, of course, will not be wholly new ; but so much the better. It will impress more deeply on the mind the nature and power of an adjective ; and should the teacher choose to give them the name *adjective*, it will be long remembered.

The next step may be to teach something about the verb ; beginning, of course, with the verb active or transitive. The superiority of the method of teaching by means of the black board, especially when we are aided by sensible objects, is no where more obvious than at this point. Many of our pupils spend weeks and months in committing to memory and reciting "a verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, and to suffer," &c. &c. without knowing any more about the true nature of a verb than they did before they began ; whereas with the aid of a black board and a little ingenuity on the part of the teacher, a tolerably correct idea of a verb may be obtained in a very short time.

But how are we to proceed in the question. With a bough from some tree or shrub in his hand, the teacher takes his station at the black board, and with a faithful pupil at his side, one whom he has already partially instructed, he commences performing a series of actions which the pupil or monitor writes down on the black board ; the rest, in the meantime, looking on and writing the actions on their slates, or copying them from the black board.

The teacher may bend, swing, cut, break, saw, hack, scrape, wring, snap, strike, bite, tops, split, peel and throw the stick. The assistant pupil will accordingly write down the words I have mentioned as fast as the teacher performs the actions.

This assistant pupil will hardly be needed any longer than while the school generally

is finding out the teacher's meaning. For many will not, at first, understand him, who after a little aid in the way adverted to, will be among his very best students, in this hitherto dry and much dreaded department.

But other actions may be performed, as well as those above-mentioned. The teacher will, perhaps, whisper, halloo, sing, read, write, walk, run, leap, jump, hop, stamp, crouch, sit, rise, recline, frown, smile, &c. Not that all these are transitive verbs; for many of them are not; but they are all verbs which imply action, and will serve to give the idea of what a verb is.

Being told that these words were verbs, after they have found out their nature—pupils are now prepared to go upon the adverb. The teacher after writing down a verb, on the black board, asks the pupils for such adverbs as may be joined to it.

He writes, for example, the word *run*, and asks his pupils to tell how a person may run. Few of them may understand him at first, but with a little familiar explanation they will soon comprehend his meaning, and will begin to hold up their hands, to signify that they wish to mention words.

One will propose the word *slowly*; another, *swiftly*; another, *lazily*; another, *awkwardly*, or *gracefully*; and another, *violently*. There will be a little difficulty here, I know, about the *ly*; some omitting, and others using it. But this can easily be set right; in fact, this exercise is the very best in the world for eradicating this almost universal error of confounding the adverb with the adjective.

But the stick or bough, so useful in teaching the definition of the verb will be of great use in giving the pupil a correct idea of the nature of an adverb. Holding it up in view of the class, the teacher may say; How many ways are there of throwing this bough?

For example, it may be thrown

up
down
forward
backward
sideways
swiftly
slowly
high
far
violently
hastily
leisurely, &c.

Not that one pupil in ten, even of the older and more ingenious, could be led to suggest all these modes of *throwing* the stick, or qualities of action; but among them all, nearly all these; and perhaps some not in-

cluded in this list, might be thought of. The principal object, at first, would be, to impress deeply on their minds the idea that an adverb is added to verbs, in some way to qualify them; and this by a few exercises like the foregoing could not fail to be the result.

There are, it is true, some classes of adverbs that can best be learned by committing them to memory; but even in this, it would greatly help the pupil to retain them, by copying them from the black board and neatly writing them on his slate. Such, for example, are secondly, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly, and so on.

A correct idea of the nature of a pronoun may be given by writing down, on the black board, some anecdote; omitting at first the pronouns and requiring the pupils to supply them. Thus if an anecdote of the elephant were to be written down, we might write it as follows.

"A painter, being desirous of drawing an elephant in the uncommon attitude, of having trunk raised high in the air, and mouth open, employed boy to amuse the animal and keep in the desired attitude by throwing fruit into mouth. But as the lad frequently deceived and made an offer only of throwing the fruit grew angry; and as if had known that the painter's intention of drawing was the cause of the affront that had been offered instead of revenging himself on the lad, returned resentment on the master, and taking up a quantity of water in trunk, threw on the paper on which the painter was drawing and spoiled."

This being written out very plainly on the black board and copied by the pupils, could, by most, be easily corrected. After the repetition of a few lessons of this kind, another step would be necessary. They should not only be required to supply the appropriate words, but also to tell what they stand for. In this view they should be directed to set down, for once, not the pronouns, but the words which they would use if there were none such as *he*, *his*, *him*, *it*, &c. to be had.

Thus, in the foregoing example, the class might be asked, in order to set them going right, "What was it which was to be raised high in the air and kept there?" The elephant's trunk, they would probably reply. "Then write down the word trunk," would be the proper direction. "Keep whose mouth open?" the teacher asks. The elephant's. "Then write the word elephant's."

When the blanks are thus filled out, let the teacher read the anecdote, as thus pre-

pared, it will afford the pupils much amusement, and at the same time give them a better idea of the true nature of a pronoun—which is, indeed, its chief object—than could be obtained by the mere recital of the sentence “A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun,” &c. for a whole year.

As for a description of the Prepositions, Conjunctions and Interjections, I think this is best given when we come to use them in composition, and especially when we come to analyze our sentences, or, as it is called, pass them. It may be well to write off a list of each on the black board, and let the pupils copy them, and give them their names; not that they will fully understand them, but to prepare them, in part, for further exercises. Or if the teacher chooses entirely to omit them, for the present, there can be no possible objection to it.

It will now be time to go back, and give the pupils a little knowledge of the various forms, declinations, &c. of the various parts of speech. And first of the *number* of nouns.

This is managed, very easily, on the black board. The teacher has only to write down a list of common nouns, both in the singular and plural form, and ask them what makes the differences in the two columns of words. Thus:

house	houses
book	books
tree	trees
hand	hands
sun	suns
star	stars
lamp	lamps
eye	eyes
ear	ears
head	heads

“Think now,” he says, “in what the word *houses*, differs from the word *house*.” It will not be at all difficult for them to perceive that the only difference consists in the addition of an *s*. When it is clearly perceived that this is the only difference throughout, it will be proper to tell them that the words without the *s*, meaning but one, they are in the singular number; and the others meaning more things than one, in the plural number.

But it will be well to go a little farther and show them by familiar examples that though this is the general method of forming plural from singular nouns, yet that there are several other methods, some of which apply to a very large number of words.

Examples of what we mean by the gender of nouns, may also be presented on the black board; together with illustrations of

case and person. Case is the most difficult of all; and yet even this may be made more intelligible by means of the black board than in any other manner.

What we mean by the comparison of adjectives is better shown in this way than in any other. If the eye assists the ear—as I have all along taken for granted—the more largely, as it were, we address the eye the better.

And when we come to the number gender, case, &c. of pronouns, we again derive much aid from a full exhibition of the different forms and terminations of this part of speech, to the whole class. A good deal of explanation is, indeed, still necessary; but the explanations themselves are vastly more important when the eye is addressed at the same time.

Nothing, perhaps, which belongs to the etymological part of grammar, as grammar is now usually taught in our schools, is more dry and uninteresting than the conjugation of the verb, and the declension of nouns and pronouns; especially the former. And yet there are few things which can be more readily made intelligible, not to say interesting, by means of slates and black boards than the conjugation of a verb through its various moods and tenses.

Nor is the black board wholly useless when we come to Syntactical grammar, or passing. For besides the convenience of having the rule or rules, most important to be kept in mind at any given time, constantly before the pupils, in large letters, there are a thousand little devices which may be resorted to, with the chalk and pencil, for making a thing intelligible, which cannot be practiced in other circumstances. Let me present a few specimens of what I am now speaking of.

Suppose it is desired to show how “active verbs governs the objective case.” We accordingly write, on the black board, “Washington defended his country.”—Here, in order to make a strong impression on the youthful mind, we may draw a curved line from the governing word to the word which is governed; or at least require a pupil to do it, in view of the rest. Take, for example, the sentence already mentioned.

Washington defended his country.

Or, to make the impression still stronger, we may place the governed word below the line of the rest, implying as it were, a sort submission. Thus,

Washington defended his
country.

Again, in endeavoring to make plain the rule, "The nominative case governs the verb," we may resort to the same general plan. I use again the same sentence as before.

Washington }
defended his country.

Again, there is a rule in most of our grammars which says, "Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs and cases of nouns and pronouns." Now in order to make this rule intelligible, we may well pursue a course not unlike the former. In the following sentences the words which the conjunctions control are connected together by a curved line.

"My Father taught my brother and me to read."

"He and she were school mates."

"The poor are often despised and oppressed."

"To be good and to do good, should be our main object in life."

All, it may be said, amounts to very little; and I freely acknowledge it. Or, at least, I am free to acknowledge that there is nothing very wonderful about it. But so much the better. If there is nothing wonderful or wonderfully difficult about it, and yet if it is really calculated, as I maintain it is, to render a subject which is usually regarded dry and unintelligible, at once plain and interesting, the trifling as they may seem in the detail the suggestions which have been made and the plans which have been proposed certainly have their value, and deserve a measure of the attention of every teacher.

CHAPTER XV.—VOCAL MUSIC, OR SINGING.

Concerning music in schools, and especially the most approved methods of teaching it with the aid of the black board, I have very little to say; chiefly, for the want of experience. I only know that most of our distinguished teachers, who have called in this instrument to their aid, place a high value upon it, and are continually found using it. How can it be otherwise than useful, then, in common schools, in which the public opinion is fast deciding that singing shall be taught?

There are two considerations which weigh

much, with me, in the decision of this question. First; it seems to me obvious that in order to have the young understand music, thoroughly and practically, they must be able to read it, if not to write it.—Secondly, that a single black board would answer the purposes of both teacher and pupils, nearly as well—especially in conjunction with slates—as books on the subject, with paper, pen and ink; besides being vastly less expensive.

Much as I value music, in our schools, on account of its physical, social, and moral tendencies, I do not believe any instrumentalities are necessary but those to which I have alluded. I take for granted, however, that the teacher is duly qualified for his task; for otherwise very little can be done—whether the instrumentalities be of one kind or another. Whether it is, or is not, true that he "who has no music in his soul, is fit for treason," one thing I am sure of, that he who has no music in his soul is not fit to *teach* music, even in the district school room.

I have spoken as if I was wholly without experience in this matter. But I am not without experience in regard to the moral influence of music, in the common school room. I have witnessed, with emotions of the most exalted pleasure, its happy tendency. More than once have I seen a disorderly or at least noisy school brought to order and quiet, in a few moments, by means of singing. But as I have already said, if singing in our schools is of so much importance, this must certainly enhance the value of slates and the black board, since the voice of public opinion in regard to their use in teaching this art, wherever they have been tried, is without exception, decidedly in their favor.

CHAPTER XVI.—OF DRAWING.

The formation of geometrical lines and figures, of the figures used in writing, and of many of the letters of the alphabet, while it is a part of the instruction which belongs to those branches, respectively, is also an important preparation, as I have already said, for that more particular and extended and thorough cultivation of the art of drawing, which if it cannot be said to be indispensable to all, is at least highly useful.

Were this the place for it, I might go on to show the great importance, to the people of all classes, of knowing how to sketch such objects as interest us, whether of nature or art. The task would be as easy as it would be interesting. But I must take for granted that the reader is already con-

(To be continued.)